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ABSTRACT

Integration of foreign workers into European Union (EU) labor markets was evaluated. Three indicators of labor market integration were analyzed: unemployment rate, employment rate, and self- employment rate. Results were drawn from the Labor Force Survey data compiled by Eurostat. Findings indicated that, in all EU countries, the unemployment rate of non-nationals was considerably higher than (usually double) that of nationals; this situation had not improved since the early 1980s. Unemployment rates for young foreigners, in particular, had remained alarmingly high. The overall unemployment rate for non-nationals concealed marked differences among nationalities. If made visible, these statistical differences would underscore the precarious situation of certain groups. Moreover, granting citizenship did not automatically eliminate all barriers to employment. Foreign women had more difficulty finding a job than national women or foreign men; the female non-national unemployment rate was generally higher than the overall rate for non-nationals. Self-employment rates showed signs of convergence with those of nationals, but there were striking differences among countries and between EU and non-EU nations. (Five tables are appended.) (Author/YLB)

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The Integration of Immigrants into the Labour Markets of the EU

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Dr. Heinz Werner

The Integration of Immigrants into the Labour Markets of the EU

0 Abstract

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0. Abstract

This paper considers the integration of foreign workers into the labour markets of EU member states. It is important that migrants be able to participate on similar terms as nationals in the host society, including housing and education. Equally important to their overall integration in the host country is their equal participation in the labour market. Integration into the labour market is a process, the aim of which is similar gainful employment structures for economically active non-nationals and nationals. This paper evaluates and analyses three specific indicators of labour market integration: the unemployment rate, the employment rate, and the self-employment rate. The results are drawn from the Labour Force Survey data compiled by Eurostat.

In all EU countries, the unemployment rate of non-nationals is considerably higher than (usually double) that of nationals. This situation has not improved since the early 1980s. Unemployment rates for the young foreigners, in particular, have remained alarmingly high. The overall unemployment rate for non-nationals conceals marked differences among nationalities. If made visible, these statistical differences would underscore the precarious situation of certain groups (for example, Turks in Germany). Moreover, granting citizenship does not automatically eliminate all barriers to employment.

It is more difficult for foreign women to find a job than it is for national women or foreign men. The unemployment rate for female non-nationals is generally higher than the overall rate for non-nationals. Across the board, employment rates for foreign women are far below those for national women, and no major convergence has occurred over time.

Self-employment rates among economically active non-nationals are showing signs of convergence with those of nationals. However, there are striking differences among countries and between EU and non-EU nationals.

1. Introduction

According to OECD data[1], there are about 20 million non-nationals in Western Europe, about 40% of whom are employed. Many non-nationals have been living in their host country for quite some time. Experience has shown that, for a large proportion of foreign workers and their families, the longer they stay in the host country, the more likely it is that they will remain there permanently. Therefore, integration is an important issue for host countries. It will gain even greater significance for three reasons: existing migration pressure from third countries and EU enlargement; the ageing of the population in Europe; and a need for more skilled immigration in many European countries.

Participation in the labour market is central to the overall integration of migrants into the host society. This paper will present the state of labour market participation among nationals and non-nationals (EU and non-EU nationals). But first, two questions will be dealt with: "What is integration?" and "Why is integration necessary?" Then, some labour market indicators will be used to show the labour market position of EU and non-EU nationals in the countries of the European Union. Finally, a summary will be made and conclusions drawn.

2. What is integration?

Integration is both a process and a state. The end result of the integration process is a desired state, that is, successful integration. The integration process has proceeded successfully if comparable groups of nationals and non-nationals/ethnic minorities enjoy equal participation in the life of the receiving country's society. Important areas for integration are housing, education, and work.

If integration is to be successful, migrants must be given legal security and equality under the law. But opportunities must not only be the same in law for nationals, non-nationals, and members of ethnic minorities. Conditions must also be the same in practice. In competitive societies, equality under the law alone rarely suffices to ensure that

people with different cultural backgrounds can take advantage of society's opportunities on equal terms. Therefore, disadvantaged persons must be assisted or empowered to compete on comparable terms with nationals who have similar characteristics.

Gainful employment is a key component of society and of the life of each individual. It is necessary for one's livelihood and determines one's social standing. Successful labour market integration should be reflected in employment structures that are the same, in terms of unemployment, earnings, and employment rate, for comparable groups of nationals and non-nationals. For this to be possible, equal access to occupations and work, education and training, housing, and social security must be guaranteed, so that foreign workers can practise occupations on the same terms as nationals. The areas mentioned are not independent of each other and often influence each other.

3. Why integration efforts?

For a number of European countries, the presence of a smaller or larger number of foreign employees and their dependants is a fact to which the countries must adjust. The longer these individuals remain in the host country, the less likely it is that they will return to their country of origin. Therefore, comprehensive integration of the foreign workers and their dependants becomes necessary on humanitarian, social, and economic grounds.

- On humanitarian grounds because the migrants have lived and worked in the country for some years and have made a contribution to the receiving country's development. If they decide to remain in the country permanently, it must be made possible for them to participate in the life of that country's society as equals to nationals.
- On social grounds because discrimination against certain groups can lead to their marginalisation, which, in turn, can have negative social consequences such as criminal activity or social unrest.
- On economic grounds because labour market discrimination leads to inefficient use of human resources (in this case the foreign workers), unused potential for productivity, and avoidable costs to the host society and economy.

[1] OECD (2002): Trends in International Migration, Paris

4. Some stylised facts: non-national workers in the EU

The foreign labour force is more than 8 million strong in the European Union, three quarters of whom live in the countries with the largest populations: Germany, France, and the UK. The proportion of non-nationals to the total labour force varies considerably from country to country (see figure). The highest percentages are in Luxembourg, Austria, Germany, and Belgium. Since the early 80s, the number of foreign workers has increased in nearly all member states. However, as the national labour forces have grown as well, the percentages of foreign workers have remained more or less the same.

Only about 3 million people of the foreign labour force are from other EU countries. This means that at community level, less than 2% of EU nationals live and work in another member state.

Note: The naturalisation legislation in force in each of the member states has an impact on the statistics concerning non-nationals. In countries where citizenship can be obtained after only a short period of time and with little difficulty, the naturalised foreign workers "disappear" from the non-national figures and reappear among the nationals. The Netherlands, Sweden, Belgium, Denmark, and France have high rates of naturalisation. Until recently, Germany had comparably low rates of naturalisation. This has changed now with the enactment of new naturalisation laws.

5. Measuring labour market integration

Labour market integration is a process toward establishing the same gainful employment structures for economically active foreigners/ethnic minorities as exist for nationals. Integration can be deemed successful if the gainful employment structures of all groups are similar. Applied specifically to labour market conditions, this means that, at the end of the integration process, no more differences should exist between comparable groups of nationals and migrants in such areas as employment participation (activity rate), unemployment, or income.

As integration proceeds toward a desired state (same employment structures), labour market integration could be measured by looking at the differences (or similarities) in employment structures between the national and non-national workforces. The simplest measurement would compare and contrast such labour market indicators as activity, unemployment, and incomes for gainfully employed nationals and non-nationals. Indices could also be calculated which indicate the degree of deviation.

One major problem lies in defining a comparable group of nationals. In order to assess the degree of integration, one must juxtapose comparable groups of nationals and foreigners/ethnic minorities. The characteristics of the national contrast group must be identical (or as nearly so as possible) to those of the non-national/ethnic minority group in terms of age, sex, qualifications, occupation, economic sector, and region.

Integration also has a time dimension. Personal situations and the situation of successive generations change over the course of time. When measuring integration by means of indicators measurements are added up and standardised at a given point in time (e.g., by forming ratios). This process merely gives a snapshot of the situation at a particular point in time. However, individual integration processes can happen at very different stages during the time of measurement. This type of measurement blurs differences among time sequences and generations, since only one mean value is retained for one point in time and the mean value may well conceal considerable differences among nationalities/countries of origin. A more detailed breakdown, as far as statistically possible, could uncover these differences.

Because of the time dimension involved in integration, the true degree of integration can only be determined over time, with the help of a longitudinal study. The individual development of immigrants and subsequent generations within the society of the receiving country would have to be tracked and compared with those of the national population. A retrospective survey could be used, in which developments from the past up to the time of the survey help identify individual stages of integration.

Using indicators to measure integration is, therefore, not without problems. There is no single indicator which depicts a particular stage of integration. Only by looking at several indicators together can one obtain an overall picture. Other processes may be hidden behind any one figure, which can be attributed to country-to-country differences in the way labour markets work. Nevertheless, some indicators will be presented below which can point to the level of labour market integration of foreign workers.

To ensure comparability across countries, the following indicators are based on Eurostat's annual Labour Force Survey. The EU Labour Force Survey uses a harmonised questionnaire for all countries involved, so it provides easily comparable data. Thus, it is a valuable source of information on the EU as a whole and on individual EU countries. However, the survey has some limitations, which, in turn, limit the available data. Nevertheless, three labour market indicators were chosen which allow an assessment of the labour market position of nationals and non-nationals in EU countries: the unemployment rate, the employment rate, and the self-employment rate.

6. Some indicators for measuring labour market integration

6.1 Unemployment rate

Unemployment has an unfavourable effect on the integration of foreign workers. Repeated or lengthy periods of unemployment may lead to loss of skills and even marginalisation. Table 1 shows that in all countries the unemployment rate for non-nationals is considerably higher than the one for nationals—usually double. As a rule, the unemployment rate for EU nationals living in another member state lies between those for third-country nationals and the national population. Reasons why EU nationals fare better than third-country nationals may be their longer residence period, better knowledge of the language, and better qualifications and skills. A further reason may be the free movement of labour within the European Union, which allows EU citizens to go back to their home countries if they become unemployed and return to the host country whenever they want. As third-country nationals do not have that option, they tend to stay in the host country, even when without work. It should be mentioned that the overall rate of unemployment for foreign nationals conceals marked differences among na-

tionalities. The unemployment rate is much higher for certain nationality groups than it is for others.

Unemployment is generally more widespread among women than among men, but it is even more pronounced among women from outside the EU (Table 2). However, in some countries the unemployment rate for female EU nationals living in another EU member state is close to, or even below, that for the indigenous female work force. This is the case in Germany, Denmark, Spain, France, Italy, and Sweden.

If one looks at the figures for young people under age 25, the differences between the rates are even more glaring (Table 3). Unemployment rates for young foreigners are far higher than those for nationals in a comparable group. This is a clear signal for education and labour market policymakers that corrective measures must be taken!

The situation has not improved for foreign workers since the early 1980s. In particular, unemployment rates for young foreign nationals have remained alarmingly high. In Germany, the unemployment rate for young foreign nationals fell until 1990 but has increased dramatically since then. The drop in unemployment can be attributed to demographic developments and the extended duration of education, which resulted in fewer German youth entering the labour market through the dual vocational training system and more openings/apprenticeships becoming available to young foreign nationals. But as the economic situation deteriorated, the apprenticeship system also came under pressure and fewer young people were taken on as trainees. Young migrants have been more affected by the reduction of training opportunities than their German counterparts. This may have consequences for their future labour market position. If they remain unskilled, they are at greater risk of becoming unemployed.

How can these differences in unemployment between nationals and non-nationals be explained? The difference might be caused by the following:

In some countries, such as Germany, foreign workers have been and continue to be largely employed in the manufacturing industry or the building sector. Employment in

these sectors is generally declining. Moreover, these sectors are undergoing a restructuring and rationalisation process which requires better skills and qualifications. Foreign workers often work as unskilled labour. Such jobs are increasingly being lost in the course of rationalisation and restructuring. Redundancies and unemployment of less qualified workers, including many foreigners, are the result. Access to further training and retraining is more difficult for foreign nationals because they usually lack a good educational basis and sufficient command of the host country's language.

In the case of foreign nationals, massive losses of industrial jobs are only partly offset by employment in the tertiary sector. For more demanding jobs and those closer to customers, such as consulting and sales, they must compete with nationals and generally lack sufficient financial capital to establish their own businesses or pursue self-employment.

But even if one compares nationals and non-nationals with the same skills, qualifications, age, and sex, the unemployment rate for foreigners is still higher than that for nationals. A "residue" of unemployment remains which can only be attributed to nationality, yet does not necessarily have anything to do with nationality directly. It can, for example, involve discrimination due to prejudices about ethnic origin.

One place where this type of discrimination against foreign workers occurs is in the recruitment and selection processes of companies. Nationals tend to follow formal application procedures, whereas non-nationals tend, to a greater extent, to look for work through a network of friends and relatives. Thus, they do not make use of certain application procedures.[2]

The labour market problems experienced by foreign workers are greater during economic recession. Less qualified persons (among them many foreigners) are affected dis-

[2] The ILO carried out a number of studies in various countries to measure the degree of discrimination in the course of the recruitment process: A national and a non-national or a person from an ethnic minority "apply" for the same vacant position, pretending to have the same qualifications. In general, the refusal rate for foreigners and ethnic minorities was considerably higher than that for the nationals. The studies have been published in the "International Migration Papers" of the International Labour Office/ Geneva

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proportionately by redundancies. For new recruits, companies can select from a larger pool of applicants, which consists not only of workers who have been made redundant, but also of new additions to the labour market, such as young people who have completed training or women who want to take up employment after a period of occupational inactivity. When they have a greater choice, and all other conditions being equal, companies prefer to take on nationals or experienced workers (rather than school-leavers).

The position of many low-skilled migrant workers may become more difficult in the course of increased globalisation. The current globalisation of the world economy is characterised by the large-scale introduction new information technology. IT enables rapid access to, exchange and processing of data. It also requires new skills and up-to-date knowledge. The less qualified, among them many migrants, who do not have the required skills and qualifications or are difficult to retrain, risk falling further behind in the labour market.

It would be interesting to compare the unemployment rates for naturalised persons and non-nationals. If one assumes that the naturalisation decision indicates a better basis for integration and the intention to become integrated into the society of the receiving country, the unemployment rate for naturalised citizens would have to be lower than that for non-nationals.

The EU Labour Force Survey does not differentiate between naturalised and native-born nationals, but the foreign-born population is counted. The numbers of foreign-born nationals can be taken as a proxy for naturalisations to calculate unemployment rates. As a rule, foreign-born nationals have a lower unemployment rate than the overall foreign population, the exceptions being Germany and Sweden. In Germany, many of the foreign-born nationals are persons of German origin from Central and Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union. They obtain German citizenship upon entering Germany, although they very often exhibit all the characteristics of some other "typical" immigrants,

such as insufficient command of the language, different cultural backgrounds, and inappropriate qualifications and skills. This is why their unemployment rate is above that of the foreign labour force. A similar phenomenon can be seen in Sweden as it is relatively easy to obtain Swedish citizenship.

Clearly, granting citizenship does not automatically eliminate all barriers to employment in the host country. Although naturalisation facilitates integration (and, legally speaking, presupposes equal opportunities), equality under the law does not automatically ensure the same labour market position for naturalised migrants and the native population. All the same, equal opportunities remain a prerequisite for successful integration.

6.2 Female employment rate

Gainful employment in itself is an integration factor and necessary for covering the cost of living. It also facilitates interpersonal contact and social relationships. Employment behaviour is most simply expressed by the *activity rate*, which relates the labour force (persons in employment + unemployed persons) to the reference population, e.g., persons of the same age group. Better suited for the purpose of this study is the *employment rate*; that is, the ratio of employed persons to the corresponding working-age population. The employment rate reflects successful integration (having a job). It excludes the unemployed, who have been unsuccessful (could not find a job). Unemployment was already dealt with in a previous chapter. Employment behaviour and labour market integration (having a job) is thus expressed in the employment rate. Employment rates vary between nationals and non-nationals. However, they tend to converge in the course of time. Therefore, the employment rate can serve as an indicator of integration: the closer the employment rates for nationals and non-nationals have converged, the more similar the employment behaviour of the two groups and the further labour market integration has progressed. However, the author believes that particular attention should be paid to the employment rate of female non-nationals rather than the rate for all non-nationals. Some general remarks on international migratory processes and on female employment explain this choice.

It is generally more difficult for female non-nationals to find a job than it is for female nationals or male non-nationals. As a result, their unemployment rate is higher than the

total rate for non-nationals and considerably higher than the unemployment rate for female nationals. While male employees often establish contacts through the workplace, facilitating their socialisation in the receiving country, this is difficult for foreign women. As a result, it is also more difficult for foreign women to access the labour market. Insufficient command of the language of the host country, a lack of qualifications, and cultural distance from working life may present further obstacles to their integration. Once in the labour market, foreign women—even more so than the foreign men—are generally employed in less attractive, badly paid jobs. As these jobs are highly dependent on economic cycles, have limited contracts, and involve the risk of dismissal at any time, they are also unstable. As a result, foreign women alternate between periods of employment and unemployment.

The special employment problems encountered by female non-nationals are reflected in employment rates that differ greatly from those for female nationals. In the course of time, the employment rates for female nationals and non-nationals should converge, reflecting progress toward integration. Therefore, the difference between the two employment rates can be regarded as an indicator of the integration or non-integration of migrant women into the labour market.

Table 4 shows the employment rates for foreign and national women. The employment rates for foreign women were considerably below those for national women, across the board. No major convergence has taken place over time. The differences between these rates indicate a lack of integration of foreign women into the labour market. The employment rate of women from EU countries is often close to that of national women; in some cases, it is even higher. This may be linked to the fact that, on average, women from EU countries have stayed in the country for longer than women from third countries and their skills are better.

6.3 Self-employment rate

The percentage of economically active non-nationals who are self-employed can serve as a further indication of the labour market integration of non-nationals and ethnic groups. As a rule, the decision to take up self-employment can only be made after hav-

ing some knowledge of the local labour market. This presupposes a certain familiarity with local conditions. Self-employment also tends to suggest the intention to stay permanently in the receiving country. The possibility of a foreigner setting up business also indicates a certain freedom of access to this part of the receiving country's labour market. As a rule, free access to the labour market tends to encourage integration.

Access to self-employment may be restricted for non-nationals if the practice of certain forms of self-employment is linked to citizenship of the country of residence. Access can also be limited if the admission requirements to certain forms of self-employment are difficult for foreigners to fulfil. For example, in order to run a craftsman's business, one must first pass the *Meisterprüfung* (master craftsman's qualifying examination) in Germany. The latter presupposes a final examination in a recognised occupation. This requirement cannot be fulfilled by foreigners who have not gone through the German vocational training system, which generally takes three years to complete. About two thirds of young Germans pass through this vocational training system as compared to one third of young foreigners living in Germany. The percentage of self-employed non-nationals can, with a certain justification, be regarded as an indicator of labour market integration.

According to the labour force survey conducted by the Statistical Office of the European Communities (EUROSTAT), the percentages of self-employed persons among economically active non-nationals tend to converge (Table 5). But there are striking differences between countries and between EU and non-EU nationals. Self-employment is often more frequent among EU citizens living in another member state. On the whole, self-employment among non-nationals is on the rise and, in some countries, has reached the same level as for nationals, for example, in Germany, France, and the UK. However, one must also look at the circumstances surrounding self-employment and the type of companies involved. Were the foreigners forced into self-employment by a poor labour market situation? What income can they attain by self-employment and what are their companies' chances of survival? More research is needed in order to answer these questions.

6.4 Other indicators

As mentioned previously, no single indicator can reliably reflect the degree or the rate of integration into the labour market. Each of the indicators mentioned so far describes a particular segment of the labour market, and an overall picture can only emerge by considering several indicators together. Although empirical evidence of them is not yet available, there may be other indicators of labour market integration besides those mentioned so far.

(1) Economic success is important for the integration of migrants. Integration can only be successful if material equality between nationals and non-nationals (or ethnic groups) is achieved under otherwise equal conditions. An important prerequisite for this is equal pay for equal work, as well as equal work for equally qualified nationals and non-nationals. Equal earnings among nationals and non-nationals with otherwise identical characteristics is another indicator of labour market integration.

(2) The degree to which nationals and non-nationals are employed in atypical forms of employment can be compared. Examples of such forms are limited-term employment contracts, involuntary part-time work, and manpower hire arrangements.

For employers, atypical forms of employment are attractive because they permit the adjustment of personnel to fluctuating production requirements. Even from the point of view of employees, atypical forms of employment are not always worse than regular employment contracts. In some cases, they correspond precisely to the employees' needs. For example, women with children may wish to work part-time or schoolchildren and students may only want temporary employment. In most cases, however, the employment situation allows persons looking for work no alternative to atypical employment.

Atypical forms of employment are often part of the *secondary labour market*, and reflect the employees' precarious labour-market position. If the proportion of foreign employees in such situations is disproportionately high, this would indicate inadequate integration into the labour market—and, indeed, there are indications that for-

eigners make up a disproportionately high share of those engaged in *precarious employment*.

(3) Training and education are another important factor for labour market integration. As a rule, education and training promote access to employment and make possible equal opportunities in terms of income and occupational choice. Success or lack of success at school not only determines later opportunities in the labour market, but also leads to social behaviour which can positively or negatively influence one's life (marginalisation, criminal behaviour). The percentages of second and third generation foreigners who pass through the various levels of the education and training system serve as an important indicator of integration into the education system and the society of a particular country.

7. Conclusion

It can be stated that the labour market position of non-nationals is less favourable than that of the native-born labour force. This applies primarily to third-country nationals, and not always to EU nationals. Employment difficulties cumulate for certain groups, in particular, women, young people, and less qualified persons. The statistics are particularly worrying for young people.

The differences between nationals and non-nationals, particularly those from third countries, have not levelled off over time. When overall unemployment decreased, the unemployment among non-nationals came down as well. But the relative differences remained.

Foreign workers are more affected by economic downturns or by restructuring and rationalisations. The industrial sector, which still employs many foreigners, is shrinking and, as a result, shedding labour. Re-employment in the expanding services sector or participation in re-training schemes is often difficult due to insufficient knowledge of the language or a lack of basic qualifications.

With on-going globalisation and further technological advances, higher skills are becoming essential to employability. The continuing unfavourable labour market situation of non-nationals is mostly due to their unsatisfactory skill levels. For example, in Germany, the share of low-skilled foreign workers has not changed over time. At 60% (Turks 70%), it is twice the percentage of low-skilled nationals.

Particularly alarming is the fact that the situation for young foreigners is not much different and has hardly improved over time. This is especially true for young Turks in Germany. It is also worrying that their participation in education and Germany's dual system of vocational training has not increased.

Intensive integration efforts will be necessary in the future, particularly for young people. Education and training will play a crucial role. It must be made clear to young migrants and their parents how important qualifications and skills are for their future careers. It is in the interest of the host society and of the young people themselves to undertake efforts in education and training and to eliminate skills gaps.

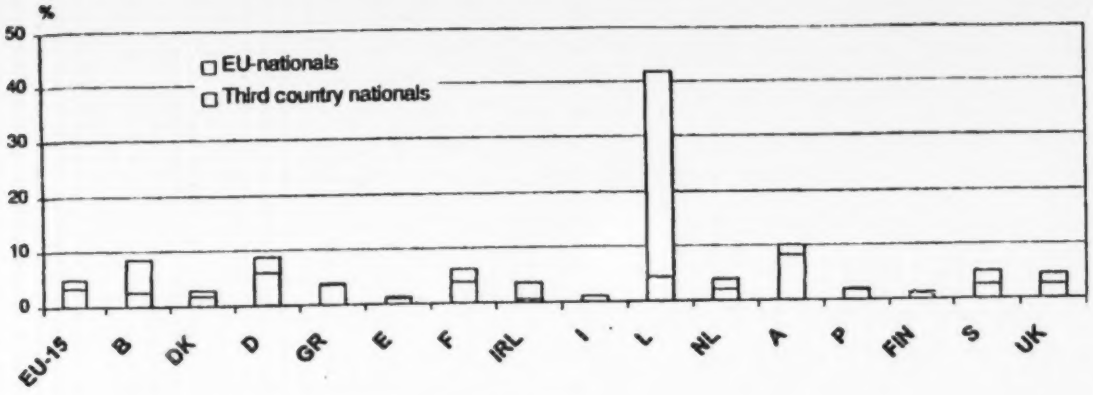
Immigration and integration cannot be considered separately. They are the two sides of the same coin. Integration will be more successful if immigration can be controlled as well. An uncontrolled and massive influx of migrants makes it more difficult to implement integration efforts and creates competition between the indigenous population and foreigners on the labour and housing markets. The native-born population would also not accept the excessive strain on the educational and social systems and the ensuing costs. Therefore, even traditional immigration countries such as the USA, Canada, Australia, and countries with high shares of foreign workers, such as Switzerland, have been very careful to control immigration in accordance with the economic situation and its acceptance by the population.

8. Annex

Figure 1:

Foreign labour in EU States by citizenship

- 2000, as percentage of total employment -



Source: Eurostat (2001): Labour Force Survey 2000; own calculations

Country abbreviations:

A	Austria
B	Belgium
D	Germany
DK	Denmark
E	Spain
FIN	Finland
F	France
GR	Greece
IRL	Ireland
I	Italy
L	Luxembourg
NL	Netherlands
P	Portugal
S	Sweden
UK	United Kingdom

Table 1

Unemployment rates in EU States 1983 - 2000

Year	Nationals	Non-nationals	of whom		Total
			EU-nationals	Third country nationals	
Austria					
1983					
1987					
1995	4.1	6,8	1.2	7.6	4.4
2000	4.3	8.8	3.4	9.9	4.7
Belgium					
1983	10.8	21.9	19.3	26.0	11.7
1987	10.2	24.8	21.8	32.8	11.3
1995	8.2	23.5	17.5	36.7	9.4
2000	5.8	15.6	9.1	30.8	6.6
Germany					
1983	6.1	11.3	9.7	11.9	6.5
1987	6.4	12.5	9.7	14.0	6.9
1995	7.5	15.1	9.4	17.6	8.2
2000	7.5	12.9	7.3	15.5	8.0
Denmark					
1983	9.8	19.0	8.1	24.8	9.9
1987	6.0	15.2	11.3	17.0	6.2
1995	6.8	18.1	7.2	26.5	7.0
2000	4.3	9.9	1.9	13.6	4.5
Spain					
1983					
1987	20.8	15.4	10.6	20.0	20.8
1995	22.9	22.8	19.4	24.7	22.9
2000	14.1	16.0	9.5	18.9	14.1
Finland					
1983					
1987					
1995	17.1	26.3	24.1	27.3	17.2
2000	11.0	29.3	9.9	33.2	11.2
France					
1983	7.5	14.6	11.4	15.1	8.0
1987	10.2	19.0	11.8	25.1	10.8
1995	11.3	21.7	10.5	29.3	11.9
2000	9.6	20.9	9.7	28.0	10.3
Greece					
1983	8.1	14.5	4.8	16.6	8.1
1987	7.5	16.4	9.0	18.2	7.6
1995	9.2	13.8	8.2	14.6	9.3
2000	11.3	11.6	13.9	11.4	11.3

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Table 1 ctd.

Unemployment rates in EU States 1983 - 2000

Year	Nationals	Non-nationals	of whom		Total
			EU-nationals	Third country nationals	
Ireland					
1983	15.0	21.0	22.1	16.2	15.2
1987	18.3	23.0	23.7	19.9	18.5
1995	12.0	18.1	19.1	14.1	12.2
2000	4.3	6.2	6.4	5.9	4.3
Italy					
1983					8.6
1987					10.9
1995	11.9	12.9	9.3	13.9	11.9
2000	10.9	12.2	9.1	12.9	11.0
Luxembourg					
1983	2.9	3.9	3.9	4.0	3.2
1987	2.2	3.0	2.9	5.5	2.5
1995	2.5	3.6	3.5	5.5	2.9
2000	1.6	3.4	2.8	8.4	2.4
Netherlands					
1983	11.4	24.5	16.1	27.8	11.9
1987	9.4	25.0	14.5	31.5	10.0
1995	6.5	23.6	11.0	33.3	7.2
2000	2.6	6.7	3.1	9.0	2.7
Portugal					
1983					
1987	7.6	14.1	5.6	16.2	7.6
1995	7.3	12.2	9.9	14.5	7.4
2000	4.0	9.1	16.5	7.6	4.1
Sweden					
1983					
1987					
1995	7.7	19.7	14.5	24.7	8.2
2000	5.1	14.6	6.1	22.0	5.5
United Kingdom					
1983	11.1	14.0	11.2	15.8	11.2
1987	11.0	13.2	12.4	13.7	11.1
1995	8.6	14.4	11.2	17.0	8.8
2000	5.4	10.1	6.7	12.2	5.6
EU					
1983	8.7	13.9	11.8	14.8	8.9
1987	10.6	15.5	12.1	17.9	10.8
1995	10.5	16.7	10.8	20.2	10.8
2000	8.2	13.6	7.6	16.9	8.4

Note: Unemployed persons 15-64 years old as a proportion of the labour force of persons 15-64 years old

Source: Eurostat Labour Force Survey

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Table 2

Unemployment rates for females in EU States 1983 - 2000

Year	Nationals	Non-nationals	of whom		Total
			EU-nationals	Third country nationals	
Austria					
1983					
1987					
1995	4.7	7.8	1.0	8.9	4.9
2000	4.1	9.1	5.2	10.1	4.6
Belgium					
1983	16.9	32.6	31.5	34.5	17.9
1987	16.5	36.5	34.8	43.1	17.7
1995	11.0	31.5	24.4	48.0	12.3
2000	7.8	16.4	11.7	31.2	8.3
Germany					
1983	7.1	14.3	11.8	15.2	7.6
1987	7.5	15.1	12.0	17.1	8.0
1995	9.3	14.9	9.4	17.5	9.7
2000	8.1	11.6	7.6	13.5	8.3
Denmark					
1983	10.5	17.9	17.7	18.0	10.6
1987	7.0	18.6	15.6	19.8	7.2
1995	8.4	21.5	3.8	30.8	8.6
2000	5.0	4.0		5.1	5.0
Spain					
1983					
1987	28.3	14.6	8.2	18.9	28.3
1995	30.6	27.0	26.1	27.6	30.5
2000	20.6	18.1	11.1	21.0	20.5
Finland					
1983					
1987					
1995	16.2	30.4	57.8	24.1	16.3
2000	11.8	29.8		32.3	12.0
France					
1983	10.1	19.3	16.8	19.6	10.5
1987	13.1	23.6	15.0	34.9	13.5
1995	13.6	24.4	11.8	35.3	14.2
2000	11.6	25.6	11.8	35.7	12.3
Greece					
1983	12.1	18.2	11.1	20.2	12.2
1987	11.6	21.3	7.4	24.8	11.7
1995	14.0	18.2	8.8	20.4	14.1
2000	16.9	17.6	21.0	17.3	16.9

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Table 2 ctd.

Unemployment rates for females in EU States 1983 - 2000

Year	Nationals	Non-nationals	of whom		Total
			EU-nationals	Third country nationals	
Ireland					
1983	15.9	24.3	25.6	18.6	16.2
1987	19.0	26.7	27.6	21.9	19.2
1995	11.9	19.2	19.5	17.7	12.1
2000	4.1	7.0	8.2	4.6	4.2
Italy					
1983					14.3
1987					16.8
1995	16.3	22.8	15.0	27.1	16.3
2000	14.9	21.1	18.9	21.6	14.9
Luxembourg					
1983	4.2	6.9	6.8	7.0	5.1
1987	3.5	4.3	4.0	10.2	3.8
1995	3.8	5.3	5.3	6.1	4.4
2000	2.4	4.0	3.4	9.4	3.2
Netherlands					
1983	13.4	29.5	20.1	34.2	13.8
1987	13.5	36.6	26.9	42.2	14.0
1995	8.2	24.3	14.8	32.3	8.7
2000	3.3	8.8	4.9	11.7	3.5
Portugal					
1983					
1987	9.9	19.1	53.3	17.5	9.9
1995	8.0	20.3	15.0	24.8	8.1
2000	5.0	10.8	26.1	8.1	5.1
Sweden					
1983					
1987					
1995	7.1	15.6	12.5	19.0	7.4
2000	4.6	13.0	2.9	23.4	5.1
United Kingdom					
1983	9.8	10.2	7.4	12.5	9.9
1987	10.5	10.9	8.6	12.3	10.5
1995	6.8	11.8	8.2	15.1	7.0
2000	4.8	8.1	6.5	9.2	4.9
EU					
1983	9.8	16.0	13.4	17.1	10.8
1987	12.5	17.5	14.1	20.4	13.3
1995	12.3	17.2	11.3	21.1	12.5
2000	9.7	13.9	8.4	17.2	9.9

Note: Percentage of unemployed persons 15-64 years of age of the labour force 15-64 years of age

Source: Eurostat Labour Force Survey

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Table 3

Youth unemployment rates in EU States 1983 - 1999

Year	Nationals	Non-nationals	of whom		Total
			EU-nationals	Third country nationals	
Austria					
1983					
1987					
1995	5.3	10.4	2.6	10.8	5.9
1999	5.5	9.9		10.5	5.9
Belgium					
1983	22.4	39.0	34.5	46.7	23.9
1987	19.6	41.9	39.4	48.7	21.4
1995	19.7	42.7	33.3	55.3	21.5
1999	21.5	37.0	28.8	46.9	22.6
Germany					
1983	10.1	18.2	16.7	18.8	10.6
1987	6.9	15.4	10.6	18.0	7.5
1995	7.3	15.7	9.1	17.8	8.5
1999	7.8	17.4	15.2	18.1	8.9
Denmark					
1983	18.8	22.5	11.0	29.4	18.9
1987	8.8	18.1	9.7	20.8	8.9
1995	9.8	14.3		18.2	9.9
1999	9.9	13.3		14.9	10.0
Spain					
1983					
1987	43.5	26.5	12.3	49.8	43.5
1995	41.8	36.1	16.2	45.6	41.7
1999	29.5	26.1	35.7	22.4	29.5
Finland					
1983					
1987					
1995	41.6	8.6		9.6	41.2
1999	28.6	23.3		20.0	28.6
France					
1983	19.1	30.0	22.9	30.7	19.8
1987	22.8	34.0	22.1	46.0	23.4
1995	26.5	38.1	20.4	46.3	27.1
1999	26.0	35.5	15.7	42.2	26.5
Greece					
1983	23.0	26.7		33.3	23.1
1987	24.9	29.8	44.4	27.1	25.0
1995	28.2	17.7	18.8	17.6	27.9
1999	32.4	20.7	18.5	20.7	31.7

Table 3 ctd.

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Youth unemployment rates in EU States 1983 - 1999

Year	Nationals	Non-nationals	of whom		Total
			EU-nationals	Third country nationals	
Ireland					
1983	21.0	32.5	34.7	24.3	21.3
1987	25.8	33.3	34.8	24.7	26.0
1995	18.9	24.3	23.8	26.3	19.0
1999	8.4	9.3	8.5	14.5	8.4
Italy					
1983					28.9
1987					33.7
1995	32.8	29.1		32.9	32.8
1999	33.1	14.4	32.9	9.9	32.9
Luxembourg					
1983	6.1	8.3	7.8	9.1	6.7
1987	5.0	6.1	5.8	13.9	5.4
1995	6.1	8.5	7.4	21.0	7.2
1999	6.0	7.4	6.7	13.5	6.8
Netherlands					
1983	20.4	37.2	23.6	40.3	21.0
1987	16.1	38.9	24.9	47.8	16.8
1995	11.5	26.9	17.9	30.7	12.1
1999	7.1	17.0	7.6	21.2	7.4
Portugal					
1983					
1987	17.5	17.0	19.3	16.4	17.5
1995	16.0	13.8	19.6		16.0
1999	8.9	26.4	20.4	28.8	9.1
Sweden					
1983					
1987					
1995	19.0	17.6	24.0	12.5	19.0
1999	16.0	27.5		40.5	16.3
United Kingdom					
1983	20.2	22.0	21.1	22.4	20.2
1987	16.2	15.9	13.2	17.3	16.2
1995	15.3	22.6	24.1	21.5	15.5
1999	12.5	11.3	9.5	12.8	12.5
EU					
1983	17.2	24.7	21.5	25.9	19.6
1987	19.4	22.7	18.0	26.0	21.6
1995	21.2	20.6	15.4	22.5	21.2
1999	18.2	19.2	14.6	20.9	18.3

Note: Percentage of unemployed persons 15-64 years of age of the labour force 15-64 years of age

Source: Eurostat Labour Force Survey

Table 4

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Employment rates for females in EU States
1983 - 2000

Year	Nationals	Non-nationals	of whom		Total
			EU-nationals	Third country nationals	
Austria					
1983					
1987					
1995	59.2	59.1	60.4	58.9	59.2
2000	59.8	58.5	63.2	57.4	59.7
Belgium					
1983	37.5	22.9	25.6	19.0	36.4
1987	38.8	21.6	26.2	12.1	37.5
1995	47.1	26.0	34.5	14.2	45.4
2000	53.6	34.5	43.5	18.9	51.9
Germany					
1983	45.3	43.9	50.0	41.9	45.2
1987	49.1	41.8	51.4	37.1	48.5
1995	56.5	43.1	55.6	38.5	55.3
2000	59.2	43.9	56.9	39.4	57.8
Denmark					
1983	64.5	50.1	47.2	50.9	64.3
1987	71.3	56.4	69.2	52.5	71.0
1995	67.7	37.9	53.3	31.2	67.0
2000	72.9	48.9	69.8	44.7	72.1
Spain					
1983					
1987	26.6	32.5	31.8	33.0	26.6
1995	31.2	35.5	33.3	37.2	31.2
2000	40.2	46.9	46.4	47.2	40.3
Finland					
1983					
1987					
1995	58.2	45.9	33.0	48.3	58.1
2000	65.4	43.4	63.0	41.8	65.2
France					
1983	51.6	33.9	34.8	33.8	50.5
1987	51.0	32.6	47.7	21.2	49.8
1995	53.1	35.4	54.0	25.2	52.0
2000	56.1	36.1	56.6	26.4	54.8
Greece					
1983	34.5	27.3	36.6	25.3	34.4
1987	36.4	29.0	30.1	28.7	36.3
1995	37.9	46.1	48.5	45.4	38.0
2000	41.1	46.0	39.2	46.7	41.3

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Table 4 ctd.

Employment rates for females in EU States 1983 - 2000					
Year	Nationals	Non-nationals	of whom		Total
			EU-nationals	Third country nationals	
Ireland					
1983	33.5	30.5	30.7	29.4	33.4
1987	33.3	28.9	30.3	23.8	33.1
1995	41.5	36.1	37.4	31.8	41.3
2000	53.5	49.8	52.2	45.4	53.4
Italy					
1983					34.0
1987					34.7
1995	35.6	38.1	51.8	32.5	35.6
2000	39.3	40.5	41.9	40.1	39.3
Luxembourg					
1983	35.8	46.3	41.1	56.0	38.6
1987	38.2	50.9	52.1	35.0	41.8
1995	38.7	48.5	49.9	34.2	42.2
2000	46.7	54.6	56.6	40.8	50.0
Netherlands					
1983	34.8	24.7	35.8	20.7	34.5
1987	43.1	20.7	27.2	17.6	42.4
1995	54.3	30.1	48.3	21.5	53.2
2000	64.5	43.5	64.7	34.5	63.4
Portugal					
1983					
1987	49.6	29.8	5.1	34.2	49.5
1995	54.4	28.0	24.9	31.7	54.3
2000	60.3	62.0	40.1	67.2	60.4
Sweden					
1983					
1987					
1995	73.6	50.8	64.4	40.5	72.4
2000	70.8	52.1	69.7	39.3	69.7
United Kingdom					
1983	51.6	47.2	55.2	42.2	51.4
1987	56.8	48.3	56.5	43.9	56.3
1995	62.0	49.0	60.9	40.8	61.4
2000	65.2	51.5	61.0	46.1	64.5
EU					
1983	47.2	39.5	44.8	37.4	44.0
1987	46.7	38.8	47.4	33.2	44.3
1995	50.0	41.6	53.3	35.7	49.6
2000	54.3	44.4	56.5	38.9	53.8

Note: Percentage of employed persons 15-64 of age of population 15-64 years of age

Source: Eurostat Labour Force Survey

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Table 5

Self-employment rates in EU States 1983 - 2000

Year	Nationals	Non-nationals	of whom		Total
			EU-nationals	Third country nationals	
Austria					
1983					
1987					
1995	11.4	5.6	22.9	3.2	10.8
2000	11.2	4.7	11.2	3.3	10.5
Belgium					
1983	15.0	11.7	13.6	8.6	14.7
1987	15.4	13.7	14.8	10.1	15.3
1995	15.3	16.4	17.2	14.0	15.4
2000	13.7	13.4	13.1	14.3	13.6
Germany					
1983	9.3	4.7	8.6	3.2	9.0
1987	9.3	6.7	9.5	5.0	9.1
1995	9.5	8.2	12.9	5.8	9.4
2000	9.8	8.7	12.8	6.5	9.7
Denmark					
1983	11.6	7.5	13.4	3.7	11.6
1987	9.2	7.3	6.4	7.7	9.2
1995	8.3	9.9	10.0	9.8	8.4
2000	8.0	6.8	11.2	4.5	8.0
Spain					
1983					
1987	23.5	24.1	28.7	19.2	23.5
1995	21.7	26.3	32.6	22.5	21.8
2000	18.0	17.8	31.6	11.0	18.0
Finland					
1983					
1987					
1995	14.4	7.5	14.9	4.2	14.3
2000	12.6	12.9	14.9	12.4	12.6
France					
1983	13.4	4.8	13.8	3.4	12.8
1987	13.0	7.0	6.4	7.6	12.7
1995	11.7	8.9	8.8	9.0	11.6
2000	10.0	9.4	10.3	8.6	10.0
Greece					
1983	36.6	23.3	25.2	22.9	36.5
1987	35.5	25.3	29.0	24.4	35.4
1995	34.1	12.8	23.8	11.0	33.8
2000	32.2	8.5	12.8	8.2	31.3

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Table 5 ctd.

Self-employment rates in EU States 1983 - 2000					
Year	Nationals	Non-nationals	of whom		Total
			EU-nationals	Third country nationals	
Ireland					
1983	21.3	20.1	20.3	19.1	21.3
1987	21.8	22.8	22.3	24.6	21.8
1995	20.7	22.7	22.9	22.2	20.8
2000	16.5	15.9	17.7	11.9	16.5
Italy					
1983					23.9
1987					24.4
1995	24.5	21.7	26.4	20.4	24.5
2000	23.7	19.3	26.1	17.9	23.6
Luxembourg					
1983	11.0	5.7	8.2	2.4	9.4
1987	10.9	5.5	5.2	9.8	9.2
1995	12.2	6.5	6.5	6.0	10.0
2000	10.2	6.5	6.6	6.2	8.7
Netherlands					
1983	9.6	5.6	9.1	3.9	9.5
1987	10.2	8.4	9.7	7.4	10.1
1995	11.6	7.9	8.6	7.1	11.5
2000	10.1	8.8	11.5	7.0	10.0
Portugal					
1983					
1987	27.3	15.3	42.2	8.0	27.2
1995	25.8	34.9	33.8	36.0	25.8
2000	20.3	11.7	9.1	12.1	20.2
Sweden					
1983					
1987					
1995	11.3	9.8	7.9	11.9	11.3
2000	9.9	9.1	7.3	11.0	9.8
United Kingdom					
1983	10.1	12.6	13.0	12.4	10.2
1987	12.4	15.9	15.1	16.4	12.5
1995	13.0	13.7	15.2	12.4	13.0
2000	10.9	12.2	12.7	11.8	10.9
EU					
1983					14.2
1987					15.9
1995	15.2	9.9	12.9	7.9	15.0
2000	13.8	10.0	12.6	8.4	13.6

Note: Percentage of self-employed persons of total of employed persons

Source: Eurostat Labour Force Survey

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